Understanding self-respect and its relationship to self-esteem

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Author note

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For all experiments, all measures, conditions and data exclusions are reported. Any exclusion made not detailed in the main text was minor and is detailed in the appendices.

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Abstract

The concept of self-respect has received little attention in the psychological literature and is not clearly distinguished from self-esteem. The present research sought to empirically investigate the bases of self-respect by manipulating adherence to morals together with interpersonal appraisals, or task-related competence, in hypothetical scenarios (Studies 1a and 1b) and a situation participants relived (Studies 2 and 3). Participants' levels of state self-respect and self-esteem were measured. Studies 1-3 found main effects of adherence to morals on self-respect, with self-respect mediating the effect of adherence to morals on self-esteem, but little support for competence and interpersonal appraisals directly influencing self-respect. Self-respect uniquely contributed to anticipated/felt self-esteem alongside competence or interpersonal appraisals. The pattern of results supports the conceptualisation of self-respect as a component of self-esteem associated with morally principled conduct, distinct from performance and social self-esteem. The findings have implications for our understanding of self-esteem and moral behaviour.

Keywords: Self-respect, self-esteem, moral self, competence, interpersonal appraisals

While we are all familiar with the term "self-respect", the concept has received much less attention in the psychological literature than self-esteem (Kristjansson, 2007; Roland & Foxx, 2003). The two concepts are not clearly distinguished, with the terms often used interchangeably in popular culture, or self-respect being used to operationalise global self-esteem (e.g. Kernis, 2003; Marsh & O'Neil, 1984; Rosenberg, 1965). For example, Rosenberg, Schooler, Schoenbach, and Rosenberg (1995) write that the "central feature of global self-esteem appears to be self-acceptance or self-respect" and that "competence is only one factor contributing to such feelings" (p. 144). However, an examination of the philosophical and psychological literature suggests self-respect and self-esteem are rather distinct concepts and underlines the need for self-respect to take a more central place in psychological research.

Following from the interpersonal respect literature, it is logical to conceptualise self-respect as an attitude of respect for oneself, that is, a positive evaluation of oneself as valuable and deserving of respect, and therefore a specific self-evaluation, as opposed to a generalised attitude of favourableness or unfavourableness towards the self as a whole, i.e. global self-esteem (Rosenberg et al., 1995). Unlike liking, the attitude of respect is directed towards someone who possesses attributes that command recognition and appreciation, regardless of personal affinities and needs (Van Quaquebeke & Eckloff, 2010). Respect can be paid to someone on the basis of (1) their social position – often referred to as "status respect", (2) their inherent worth as a human being (Prestwich & Lalljee, 2009) –often referred to as "unconditional respect", or (3) on the basis of admirable personal qualities of a moral, principled or honourable nature (e.g., moral integrity, concern for others' welfare, working to the limits of ability and mental toughness) and achievements, intellectual talents and skills (Clucas & St Claire, 2017; Frei & Shaver, 2002; Hamilton & Fallot, 1974; Prestwich & Lalljee, 2009) - often referred to as "achieved respect". Similarly, the self-

respect literature has distinguished between recognition and appraisal self-respect. The former is based on Kantian ideas and views self-respect as derived purely from an appreciation of personhood as a rational, autonomous, equal and moral agent (see Kristjansson, 2007; Renger, 2017). The latter is based on Aristotelian ideas and views self-respect as earned and merit based, involving a positive appraisal or evaluation of oneself as worthy of honour and the "dutiful regard of oneself and others", based on conformity to valued standards of conduct, moral integrity, and excellence of character (Dillon, 2010; Kumashiro, Finkel, & Rusbult, 2002, p. 1016; Kristjansson, 2007; Roland & Foxx, 2003). These two notions could exist alongside each other, in a similar manner to the attitudes of unconditional and achieved interpersonal respect (Clucas & St Claire, 2017).

This paper concentrates on appraisal self-respect, which is more similar to self-esteem by its stronger evaluative and subjective nature and focus on individual merits, yet is not synonymous with it. Like self-esteem, self-respect is linked to a positive self-appraisal as worthy, but appears to be derived specifically from a favourable appraisal of one's character and conduct, often from a moral viewpoint, as opposed to other qualities (Dillon, 2010; Roland & Foxx, 2003). Therefore, self-respect may not always be high in an individual with high self-esteem (Roland & Foxx, 2003) and is likely to exist alongside other well-known non moral specific self-evaluations such as performance, social approval and physical appearance (Harter, 1999, Marsh, Craven, & Martin, 2013), which all contribute to global self-esteem. Self-respect has been conceptualised both as a trait, with some people enjoying higher self-respect across time and situations than others (Brown & Marshall, 2006; Kristjansson, 2010; Kumashiro et al., 2002), and a state, fluctuating in response to temporary experiences (Luchies, Finkel, McNulty, & Kumashiro, 2010).

Whilst self-respect has only rarely been presented as a distinct self-evaluation attached to a given domain in the psychological literature, there is some wider recognition

that self-esteem involves a sense of self-respect. For instance, the Rosenberg (1965) Self-esteem Scale includes an item on self-respect. Also, Crocker, Luhtanen, Cooper and Bouvrette (2003) measure the extent to which self-esteem is contingent on moral/ethical conduct and use the term self-respect (instead of self-esteem) in some of the measure's items.

Moreover, whilst moral/ethical conduct is recognised as a valued human strength cross-culturally (Dahlsgaard, Peterson, & Seligman, 2005) and as a basis for self-esteem (see Crocker et al., 2003), moral self-esteem lacks a consistent operationalisation in trait and state multidimensional self-esteem measures, which sometimes assess moral character and behaviour along with religiosity (e.g. Tennessee Self-Concept scale, Fitts, 1964), honesty and trustworthiness more specifically (e.g. Self-description Questionnaire-III, Marsh & O'Neil, 1984) or feelings of having engaged in morally acceptable behaviour (e.g. Multidimensional Self-esteem Inventory, O'Brien & Epstein, 1998). These disparate measures could actually be tapping on a broader self-evaluation as a principled, moral and honourable person worthy of high regard, i.e. self-respect (Kumashiro et al., 2002). Self-respect could therefore be an important pathway by which morally principled behaviour relates to self-esteem.

Little research has sought to understand how best to conceptualise self-respect. Two notable exceptions provide indirect support for self-respect being attached to a self-conception as moral and honourable. Kumashiro et al. (2002) showed that trait self-respect (defined as perceiving oneself as a principled person worthy of honour and high regard) predicted pro-relationship behaviour in marital relationships and well-being independently from self-esteem, thus also supporting self-respect and self-esteem being distinct constructs, although the self-respect measure did not undergo a thorough validation process. Luchies et al. (2010) demonstrated an increase in a single-item measure of state self-respect when forgiving a partner who made amends, supposedly the right or honourable thing to do. In addition, Renger (2017) showed recognition self-respect to be distinct from self-esteem.

However, the idea that self-respect is related to moral integrity has never been tested directly and it is unclear whether self-respect has the same bases as interpersonal respect. More research is needed to identify the bases of self-respect, including its relationship with other major specific self-evaluations such as task-related competence and social approval.

Task-related competence is often considered a facet of self-esteem (Harter, 1999; Heatherton & Polivy, 1991). However, it is unclear whether task-related competence also influences self-respect. In addition to qualities relating to moral integrity and principled behaviour, admirable qualities such as being inspiring and possessing talents, intellectual qualities and skills (Frei & Shaver, 2002; Hamilton & Fallot, 1974; Prestwich, & Lalljee, 2009) have been shown to influence respect for others. This raises the question of whether task-related competence influences self-respect in addition to principled, honourable and moral behaviour.

Similarly, the relationship between self-respect and interpersonal appraisals has not been explored. Much literature has emphasised that self-esteem is influenced by social approval and acceptance (Coopersmith, 1967; Leary, Haupt, Strausser, & Chokel, 1998). On the other hand, an individual's self-respect appears to be based on his/her appraisal of his/her own conduct and character and thus appears to be primarily internally driven. Moreover, research has shown that whilst respect is more strongly linked to intellectual attributes, such as skill, intelligence and commitment, liking is more strongly linked to social qualities, such as warmth and popularity (Hamilton & Fallot, 1974; Fiske, Cuddy, Glick & Xu, 2002; Lalljee & Prestwich, 2009). As a result, interpersonal appraisals might be expected to influence self-liking rather than self-respect.

The dearth of research on self-respect has hindered a solid understanding of the nature of the construct. Yet, support that self-respect is a component of self-esteem based on moral integrity would further suggest self-respect is likely to have important implications for moral

behaviour and social relationships in ways that self-esteem more globally may not (see Baumeister, Campbell, Krueger, & Vohs, 2003, Kumashiro et al., 2002; Roland & Foxx, 2003) and its more controllable nature may make it more amenable to intervention.

Four experimental studies were conducted to further our psychological understanding of self-respect by investigating the influence of adherence to moral principles, interpersonal appraisals and task-related competence on anticipated or experienced self-respect and self-esteem, and exploring how these concepts differ from and relate to each other. It was hypothesised that (1) adherence to morals will influence self-respect directly, (2) self-respect will mediate the effect of adherence to morals on self-esteem, (3), interpersonal appraisals will influence self-esteem rather than self-respect, (4) task-related competence will influence self-esteem (its effect on self-respect will be explored). Studies 1a and 1b investigated the influence of adherence to morals together with academic competence (Study 1a) or interpersonal appraisals (Study 1b) on anticipated state self-respect and self-esteem in hypothetical scenarios. Study 2 investigated participants' levels of state self-respect and self-esteem when reliving a situation in their life in which they had (or had not) compromised on their morals and performed well (or badly) academically. Study 3 was similar to Study 2 but focused on more broadly defined task-related competence.

Studies 1a and 1b

Participants completed an online questionnaire, which instructed them to imagine themselves into one of four scenarios (assigned at pseudo-random by rotating questionnaire versions approximately every ten participants) manipulating adherence to morals with interpersonal appraisals (IA) (Study 1a) or with academic competence (Study 1b), creating a 2 X 2 between-subjects factorial design in each study. Participants completed self-respect (SR) and self-esteem (SE) measures at baseline and whilst imagining themselves in the scenario.

Study 1a Method

Participants. One-hundred and fifty-nine UK university students were recruited through the psychology department online research participation system (RPS). Sample characteristics are shown in Table 1. All studies were approved by the Psychology Department University Ethics Committee. Participation was voluntary and anonymous.

Materials and procedure. Participants were asked to imagine that they belonged to a prestigious student society and they either lied (without society peers knowing) or did not lie about their background to fit in, rejecting past friends, going against or abiding to their moral code and standards they cared about (low (LM) and high adherence to morals (HM) respectively – see Appendix A for verbatim). Following the procedure of Leary et al. (1998), participants were then asked to imagine they had the chance to find out exactly how the society members had rated them on the extent to which they would be willing to engage with them in four social activities (such as inviting them if they were planning a party). The ratings were either high (positive IA) or low (negative IA) (see Appendix A). The four scenarios were matched on all characteristics, except the manipulated dimensions.

***Manipulation checks*.** Participants indicated (a) how accepted by peers (IA ratings) and (b) how principled and moral they felt (moral ratings) on 1 (very rejected) to 10 (very accepted), and 1 (very immoral) to 10 (very moral) numeric rating scales.

Outcome measures. A three-item scale was used to measure state SR in the scenario. Items were responded to on 7-point Likert scales (1 = strongly disagree, 7 = strongly agree) and included: "I feel I have a high level of self-respect", "I have a lot of respect for myself" and "I wish I could have more respect for myself" (α =.89). In all studies, parallel analysis using the fa.parallel function in the psych R-package (Revelle, 2018)[1] supported the SR items representing a single factor with factor loadings from .51 to .99 across studies. The single item validated by Robins, Hendin and Trzesniewski (2001): I have high self-esteem" (rated

on a Likert scale of 1 = not very true of me, 7 = very true of me) was used to measure state SE in the scenario.

Baseline measures. Trait SE was measured using the 10-item 4-point Likert Rosenberg (1965) Self-Esteem Scale (RSES) (1 = strongly disagree, 4 = strongly agree).[2] Trait SR was measured using the 8-item trait Self-respect Scale (SRS), which showed good construct validity, and internal reliability in past research (Clucas & Wilkinson, 2017), and α = .86 in the present sample. Examples of items are "I will stick to my principles even if asked to do otherwise" and "I see my behaviour as dignified" (rated a Likert scale from 1 = strongly disagree, 7 = strongly agree) (developed to represent attributes contributing to a self-conception as moral, principled and honourable based on existing literature, see Kristanjsson, 2007; Kumashiro et al., 2002; Luchies et al., 2010).

State SE was also measured using Heatherton and Polivy's (1991) 20-item Likert state self-esteem scale (SSES) (1 = not at all, 5 = extremely, α = .93) and state SR using the items: "I have a lot of respect for myself" (1 = strongly disagree, 7 = strongly agree) and "I wish I could have more respect for myself" (1= strongly disagree, 4= strongly agree), whose standardised scores were averaged into one index (Spearman-Brown coefficient (r_{SB}) = .60).[3] Scores were averaged for multi-item outcome measures, manipulation checks and baseline SR measures. Total scores were otherwise computed.

Analytical approach. A 2 X 2 MANOVA was used given the strong correlation between anticipated scenario SR and SE (*rho* = .70).[4] Despite being high, a correlation of .70 indicates that 51 per cent ($1 - .70^2$) of the variance in state SR and SE remains unshared (Studies 2 and 3 further support the measures as tapping two strongly related but distinct factors in line with our conceptualisation of SR as a specific self-evaluation as worthy of respect). A high correlation between the measures was expected given a reciprocal relationship between specific self-evaluations and global SE (Rosenberg et al., 1995). As a

component of global SE, high state SR is expected to boost global state SE whilst positive affectivity associated with high global state SE is likely to inflate global state appraisals of SR (Sedikides, Wildschut, Arndt, & Routledge, 2006). In view of this reciprocal relationship, analyses investigating influences on SR examined whether the results were accounted for by global SE feelings whilst in the scenario, and vice versa, using ANCOVA. This was done in all studies. Baseline state SR and SE were also adjusted for by being added as covariates in MANOVA and in anticipated SR and SE ANCOVAs respectively since they related to the outcome measures. Correlations between measures for all studies can be found in Appendix D.

Study 1a Results and Discussion

Preliminary analyses. There was no difference between the conditions in participants' age, sex and ethnicity, SE or SR (trait or state).

Manipulation checks. Table 2 presents descriptive statistics for manipulation check and outcome measures. 2 X 2 ANOVAs confirmed participants rated themselves more morally principled in the HM versus LM condition, $F(1,149)=87.81$, $p<.001$ ($\eta_p^2=.37$) and felt more accepted by peers in the positive versus negative IA condition, $F(1, 149) = 301.10$, $p < .001$ ($\eta_p^2= .67$).

Higher moral ratings were also found in the positive vs. negative IA condition, $F(1,149)=44.04$, $p<.001$ ($\eta_p^2= .23$), with no interaction between factors. Because of this finding, results are also presented for the effect of IA after controlling for moral ratings in anticipated SR and SE ANCOVA analyses. This finding raises the possibility that social (dis)approval by peers can intensify self-perceptions of (im)moral and (un)principled behaviour.

Main results. 2 X 2 MANCOVA showed a significant multivariate main effect of adherence to morals, $F(2,127)=27.85$, $p<.001$; Wilk's Lamba = .70, $\eta_p^2=.31$ and IA, $F(2,127)=19.23$, $p<.001$; Wilk's Lamba = .77, $\eta_p^2=.23$, and no interaction.

Adherence to morals. Univariate tests showed a significant effect of adherence to morals on SR, $F(1,128)=52.73$, $p<.001$ ($\eta_p^2= .29$), $CI_{95\%}$ = [1.222, 2.137], and SE, $F(1,128)= 9.17$, $p=.003$ ($\eta_p^2=.07$), $CI_{95\%}$ = [.262, 1.249], in the expected direction. The effect on SR remained after controlling for anticipated SE in the scenario, $F(1, 143)=57.08$, $p<.001$ ($\eta_p^2= .29$), $CI_{95\%}$ = [1.009, 1.723]. Hypothesis 1 that adherence to morals will influence self-respect was therefore supported. Moreover, the effect of adherence to morals on SE was reversed and no longer significant after controlling for SR, F (1, 129) = 2.24, $p=.137$ ($\eta_p^2=.02$), $CI_{95\%}$ = [-.807, .112].

A mediation analysis using regression (see Table 3), followed by bootstrap procedures based on 5000 random samples with replacement from the full sample to construct bias-corrected confidence intervals (MacKinnon, Fairchild & Fritz, 2007), adjusting for the IA manipulation and baseline state SR and SE, showed the size of the indirect effect (1.12) to differ significantly from zero (.74, 1.58), indicating that anticipated SR mediated the effect of adherence to morals on anticipated SE, thus supporting hypothesis 2.

Interpersonal appraisals. Univariate tests showed a significant effect of IA on SE $F(1, 128)= 36.57$, $p<.001$ ($\eta_p^2=.22$), $CI_{95\%}$ = [.682, 1.607], in the expected direction. Hypothesis 3 that IA will influence self-esteem was therefore supported. This effect remained significant after controlling for moral ratings, F (1,131) = 10.70, p =.001 ($\eta p^2=.08$), $CI_{95\%}$ = [.349, 1.417], or anticipated SR, F (1,129) = 11.61, p =.001 ($\eta_p^2=.08$), $CI_{95\%}$ = [.303, 1.144], alongside anticipated SR, F (1, 129) = 81.31, $p<.001$ ($\eta_p^2=.39$). This pattern of results suggests that both SR and IA uniquely influence SE.

A significant effect on SR was also found, $F(1,128)=23.99$, $p<.001$($\eta_p^2=.16$), $CI_{95\%}$ = [.682, 1.607], with higher anticipated SR in the positive versus negative IA condition. However, the effect became small after controlling for moral ratings, $F(1, 143)= 4.83$, $p=.030$ ($\eta_p^2=.03$), $CI_{95\%}$ = [.051, .964] and non-significant after controlling for anticipated SE, $F(1, 143)= 3.02$, $p=.071$ ($\eta_p^2=.02$), $CI_{95\%}$ = [-.030, .745] ($p=.298$, $\eta_p^2=.01$ when controlling for both variables). The effect of IA on SR was therefore explained by differences in feelings of being morally principled and anticipated SE, as opposed to being directly influenced by feelings of acceptance or rejection.

Study 1b Method

Study 1b explored the relationship between SR and another important basis for SE: academic competence, to further explore differences in the bases for SR and SE. The study also aimed to replicate the effect of adherence to morals on participants' anticipated SR and SE using a different moral behaviour (cheating as opposed to lying) and a more detailed scenario to encourage stronger immersion in the scenario.

Participants. One-hundred and seventy-nine English-speaking Western university or pre-university students[5] (all aged over 18) were recruited through Prolific Academic (prolificacademic.co.uk) - an international online participant recruitment platform, receiving £1.50 each. Students were purposely recruited to facilitate more "real world" responses to the academic competence manipulation (see Evans et al., 2015). Thirty students (16.8%) failed end of questionnaire scenario comprehension questions or did not engage with the questionnaire (see Appendix A for details of exclusion for non-engagement for all studies), leaving 148 participants (see Table 1 for sample characteristics and Appendix B for additional sample details).

Materials and procedure. Scenarios were piloted with several university students for clarity, credibility and realism and modified accordingly. Participants were asked to imagine

they had recently started a new course at university they really wanted to succeed in. According to the scenarios (see Appendix A for verbatim), they 1) were confident they would do well, and were already achieving high grades or 2) found the course extremely difficult and were already struggling to achieve decent grades (high competence (HC) and low competence (LC) conditions respectively). Because of unforeseen circumstances, they had to leave one of their assignments to the very last minute and a friend from another university kindly lends them their essay to give them a bit of a head start. They either 1) decide to submit a close copy of their friend's work (without them knowing), although it goes against their principles or 2) decide not to, since it goes against their principles (Low (LM) and high adherence to morals (HM) conditions respectively). Following the incident, they do very well (or struggle) on remaining assignments and their overall performance was very good (or poor) (HC and LC conditions respectively).

Manipulation checks. Participants indicated (1a) how principled and moral they were feeling on a scale from 1 (very immoral) to 10 (very moral) and (1b) how high their moral status was on a scale from 1 (very low) to 10 (very high) (r_{SB}=.96). They also indicated (2a) how academically competent they were feeling from 1 (very incompetent) to 10 (very competent) and (2b) how confident they were in their academic abilities from 1 (not confident) to 10 (very confident) (r_{SB} =.97).

Outcome and baseline measures. These were the same as in Study 1a with similar internal reliabilities, except that the baseline state SR measure was the same as the outcome measure but with the instruction to respond at that moment (α=.81).

Comprehension checks. Questions were included to check participants had understood and read fully the scenario given its length (see Appendix A).

Subsidiary measures. The Contingency of Self-Worth virtue subscale (Crocker et al. 2003) was administered to explore whether the relationship of morally principled behaviour

with SR differed according to level of virtue-contingent SE. This was of interest since theory on contingencies of self-worth (Crocker et al., 2003) would predict a stronger effect of morally principled behaviour on SE for people with higher (versus lower) virtue-contingent SE, but morally principled behaviour is theorised to be more defining of SR than SE (fuller detail is provided in Appendix C).

Analytical approach. A 2 X 2 MANOVA was used as in Study 1a since anticipated scenario SR and SE were strongly correlated (*rho* = .79). The correlation was high, still 38 per cent of the variance in state SR and SE was available to be uniquely explained for each. A similarly high correlation was also observed between baseline state performance SE (an established facet) and RSE (see Appendix D Table 2a for correlations between all measures). Baseline state SR was added as a covariate in MANOVA and experienced SR ANCOVA analyses but not baseline state SE because only the first related to the outcome.

Study 1b: Results and Discussion

Preliminary analyses. The conditions did not differ in terms of participants' demographic characteristics, SE or SR (trait or state). There were more white (vs. non-white) participants in the HM condition, $\chi^2(1,147)=10.16$, $p=.001$, but ethnicity did not impact any of the baseline or outcome variables.

Manipulation checks. Table 4 presents descriptive statistics for manipulation check and outcome measures.

Moral ratings. 2 X 2 ANOVA confirmed that participants felt more morally principled in the HM versus LM condition, $F(1,144)=275.81$, $p<.001$ ($\eta_p^2=.66$).

Higher moral ratings were also found in the HC versus LC condition, $F(1,144)=16.91$, $p<.001$ ($\eta_p^2= .11$). In view of this, results are also presented for the effect of academic competence after controlling for moral ratings in anticipated SR and SE ANCOVA analyses.

Academic competence ratings. 2 X 2 ANOVA confirmed that participants felt more academically competent in the HC versus LC condition, F (1, 144) = 208.80, p < .001 (η_p^2= .59).

Higher competence ratings were also found in the HM versus LM condition, F(1,144)=38.75, p<.001 (η_p^2= .21). However, a significant adherence to morals x academic competence interaction, F(1,144)=16.35, p<.001 (η_p^2= .10), indicated when followed-up, a significant effect of adherence to morals in the HC condition only, p < .001. The effect of academic competence was significant in the HM, p < .001, and LM conditions, p < .001.

Main results. 2 X 2 MANCOVA showed a significant multivariate main effect of adherence to morals, F(2,139)=68.60, p<.001; Wilk's Lamba = .50, η_p^2=.50 and academic competence, F(2,139)=21.56, p<.001; Wilk's Lamba = .76, η_p^2=.24, and no interaction.

Adherence to morals. Univariate tests showed a significant effect of adherence to morals on anticipated SR, F(1,140)=129.87, p<.001 (η_p^2= .48), $CI_{95\%}$ = [1.803, 2.560] and SE, F(1, 140)= 82.29, p<.001 (η_p^2=.37), $CI_{95\%}$ = [1.642, 2.558], in the expected direction. The effect on anticipated SR remained after controlling for anticipated SE, F(1,139)=34.95, p<.001 (η_p^2= .20), $CI_{95\%}$ = [.768, 1.539], and also competence ratings, F(1,138)=32.16, p<.001 (η_p^2= .19), $CI_{95\%}$ = [.723, 1.498]. Hypothesis 1 that adherence to morals will influence self-respect was therefore supported. Moreover, the effect of adherence to morals on SE was no longer significant after adjusting for anticipated SR, F (1, 140) = 2.79, p=.097 (η_p^2=.02), 95% CI = [-.078, .924], and became even weaker after also adjusting for academic competence ratings, F (1, 139) = 1.32, p=.253 (η_p^2=.01), $CI_{95\%}$ = [-.201, .758].

A mediation analysis, adjusting for baseline state SR and academic competence manipulation supported anticipated SR to mediate the effect of adherence to morals on anticipated SE (indirect effect = 1.59, $CI_{95\%}$ = 1.15, 2.10 > 0), and hypothesis 2 (see Table 5 for the regression coefficients).

Academic competence. Univariate tests showed a significant effect of academic competence on anticipated SE, $F(1,140)= 41.46$, $p<.001$ ($\eta_p^2=.23$), $CI_{95\%} = [1.031, 1.945]$. Hypothesis 4 that academic competence will influence SE was therefore supported. This effect remained after adjusting for moral ratings, $F(1,141) = 18.75$, $p <.001$ ($\eta p^2=.12$), $CI_{95\%} = [.483, 1.294]$, or anticipated SR, $F(1,140) = 14.18$, $p <.001$ ($\eta p^2=.09$), $CI_{95\%} = [.361, 1.160]$, alongside anticipated SR, $F(1, 145) = 91.39$, $p<.001$ ($\eta_p^2=.40$). This pattern of results suggests that both SR and academic competence uniquely influence SE.

A significant effect on anticipated SR was also found, $F(1,140)=24.45$, $p<.001$($\eta_p^2=.15$), $CI_{95\%} = [.567, 1.323]$, with higher anticipated SR in the HC versus LC condition. However, the effect became smaller after controlling for moral ratings, $F(1, 140)= 7.56$, $p=.007$ ($\eta_p^2=.05$), $CI_{95\%} = [-.391, .620]$ and disappeared after controlling for anticipated SE, $F(1, 139)=1.51$, $p=.221$ ($\eta_p^2=.01$), $CI_{95\%} = [-.132, .564]$. The main effect of competence was therefore explained by differences in feelings of being morally principled and anticipated SE, as opposed to directly influenced by feelings of competence.

Subsidiary analysis. A test of moderation did not find a differential relationship of morally principled behaviour with SR according to virtue-contingent self-esteem levels after adjusting for SE, but showed a stronger relationship of morally principled behaviour with SE for participants who were higher versus lower on virtue-contingent self-esteem, which was in line with past literature. The full results are presented in Appendix C.

In sum, Studies 1a and 1b provided support for the hypotheses and for SR to be a component of SE tied to moral integrity, distinct from IA and academic competence. Adherence to morals was found to influence anticipated SR (over and above anticipated SE), and anticipated SR mediated the effect of adherence to morals on anticipated SE. In contrast, IA and academic competence no longer influenced anticipated SR after controlling for ratings of being morally principled and anticipated SE but influenced SE independently of SR. The

studies portrayed widely endorsed moral principles, however, there could be variations in how people perceive immoral behaviours as going against their principles (Liu & Ditto, 2012). Study 2 aimed to generalise the findings relating to adherence to morals and academic competence by asking participants to respond to personally selected situations they had experienced.

Study 2

Study 2 aimed to provide additional support for the conclusions of Studies 1a and 1b and enhance ecological validity by asking participants to relive situations in their life when they had (or had not) compromised on their morals and did particularly well (or badly) academically and indicate their SR and SE at that moment in time. The study played an important role in informing Study 3 and provided some useful results in relation to academic competence specifically (as opposed to broader task-related competence) but presented a number of difficulties, and is therefore reported here in less detail (additional details can be found in Appendix E).

Although the study originally planned to use a 2 (adherence to morals: high/low) X 2 (academic competence: high/low) design, a pilot study to test the task's feasibility found that asking participants to think back to a situation when they had performed particularly well on an academic task but had compromised on their morals disrupted the academic competence manipulation. As a result, the study tested the influence of adherence to morals and competence on SR and SE by comparing the high and low adherence to morals conditions when competence was low (HM-LC/LM-LC), and the high and low competence conditions when adherence to morals was high (HM-HC/HM-LC). Participants were pseudo-randomly allocated to one of these three conditions and the study was analysed in two parts.

Methods

Out of 259 English-speaking Western university students recruited through Prolific Academic for £1.50, and through RPS, 178 recalled a relevant situation (69%); 68 (out of 83) a HM-LC situation, 52 (out of 105) a LM-LC situation[6] and 58 (out of 71) a HM-HC situation (see Table 1 for sample characteristics).

Participants were asked in an online questionnaire to relive a scenario/experience in their life in an academic setting (e.g. school, college, university) in which they had (1) performed *particularly badly* on an academic/scholarly task and *had compromised* on their morals (LM-LC), (2) performed *particularly badly* on an academic/scholarly task and *had not compromised* on their morals (HM-LC), or (3) performed *particularly well* on an academic/scholarly task and *had not compromised* on their morals (HM-HC) and were provided with examples to help them recall a specific experience, such as cheating, being unfair, or making false excuses in the LM condition and opposite behaviours in the HM condition (see Appendix A). Participants were instructed to take three minutes to relive the scenario/experience, including associated emotions, and to describe it.

Manipulation checks, outcome and baseline measures were identical to those used in Study 1b with similar internal reliabilities, except the SE measure included an additional item: "I feel good about myself" (see Rubins & Hewstone, 1998) (rated from 1 = not very true of me, 7 = very true of me, r_{SB} =.91)[7] and the baseline state SR measure included an additional item: I feel I have a high degree of self-respect (1 = strongly disagree to 7 = strongly agree) with standardised item scores averaged into one index (α=.83).

Parallel analysis and exploratory factor analysis (EFA) fit indices using Principal Axis factoring[8] supported the five SR and SE outcome items representing two factors as opposed to one (see Table 6); the SR and SE items loaded on their respective factors (loadings between .51 and .90), with low factor loadings on the other factor (between .02 and .10), and

a factor correlation of .77, indicating that the SR and SE measures represent two related but distinct constructs (see Appendix F for full details).

Results and Discussion

Although the LC adherence to morals and HM academic competence conditions did not differ according to participant demographics, recruitment source, trait or overall state SE, LM-LC participants scored significantly lower on baseline performance state SE and trait and state SR compared to HM-LC participants, and HM-LC participants scored significantly higher on trait SR compared to HM-HC participants. These differences likely reflect theoretically consistent self-selection biases whereby high SR individuals who gain a sense of worth from being principled are less likely to experience situations in which they compromise on their morals and more likely to resist the urge of compromising on their morals despite a potential need. Individuals with lower performance SE may feel more of a need for moral compromise to not do badly academically and protect their SE.

As a result, analyses testing the impact of adherence to morals controlled for baseline differences in performance SE and state SR[9] and analyses testing the impact of academic competence controlled for baseline differences in trait SR in M/ANOVA analyses by adding these as covariates. MANOVAs were used for main analyses since experienced SR and SE were strongly correlated (*rho* = .72 and *rho* =.61 respectively). Baseline overall state SE was also added as a covariate in the MANOVA and experienced SE ANCOVA analyses testing the impact of academic competence[10] but was too strongly related to performance state SE (*rho* =.80) to be added as a covariate in analyses testing the impact of adherence to morals.

Tables 7 and 9 present descriptive statistics for manipulation check and outcome measures. The manipulations were effective. Participants rated themselves significantly more morally principled in the HM-LC versus LM-LC condition, $F(1,108)=31.38$, $p<.001$ ($\eta_p^2=.23$), with no effect on academic competence ratings. Participants also rated themselves

significantly more competent in the HM-HC versus HM-LC condition, $F(1,122)=22.03$, $p<.001$ ($\eta_p^2=.15$), with no effect on moral ratings.

Using real situations, Study 2 was able to replicate the main findings of Studies 1a and 1b. Following significant multivariate MANOVA effects (see Appendix E), the study showed a main effect of adherence to morals on SR (when academic competence was held constant and low), $F(1,108)=22.76$, $p<.001$ ($\eta_p^2= .17$), $CI_{95\%} = [.600, 1.453]$, which remained significant after adjusting for experienced SE, $F(1,107)=12.15$, $p=.001$ ($\eta_p^2= .10$), $CI_{95\%} =[.273, .995]$. This effect mediated the effect of adherence to morals on SE, $F(1,108)= 9.53$, $p=.001$ ($\eta_p^2=.08$), $CI_{95\%} =[.304, 1.393]$ (indirect effect = .77, $CI_{95\%} = .47, 1.14$) (see Figure 1 for a schematic representation and Table 8 for all regression coefficients).

Academic competence did not influence SR (when adherence to morals was held constant and high), $F(1,120)= 2.13$, $p=.148$ ($\eta p^2= .02$), $CI_{95\%} = [-.103, .678]$, with the effect close to zero after controlling for experienced SE, $F(1,121)=.06$, $p=.803$ ($\eta_p^2= .001$), 95% CI = [-.397, 308], but influenced SE, $F(1,120)= 11.73$, $p=.001$ ($\eta_p^2=.09$), $CI_{95\%} = [.346, 1.295]$, independently of SR, $F(1,115)= 9.40$, $p=.003$, ($\eta_p^2=.08$), $CI_{95\%} = [.230, 1.07]$. Participants often drawing on experiences of cheating to describe moral compromise in an academic setting made it difficult to study the impact of competence in the low morals condition, and baseline differences in SR and performance SE emerged. Study 3 was carried out to address these limitations.

Study 3

Study 3 aimed to replicate Study 2 using real situations but focusing on more broadly defined task-related competence in order to test the full 2 (adherence to morals: high (HM)/low(LM)) X 2 (competence: high(HC)/low(LC)) design. Additional measures were also put in place to reduce selection biases leading to differences in baseline SR and performance SE between conditions.

Methods

Participants, materials and procedure. Participants were asked in an online questionnaire to recall and relive a scenario/experience in their life in which (1) they had performed *particularly badly* (e.g. at work, school or other activity) despite trying their best and (1a) *had compromised* on their morals (LM-LC condition) or (1b) *had not compromised* on their morals (HM-LC condition), or (2) they had performed *particularly well* and (2a) *had compromised* on their morals but still felt competent (LM-HC condition), or (2b) *had not compromised* on their morals (HM-HC). Out of 241 English-speaking Western adults recruited through Prolific Academic for £1.65, 204 recalled a relevant situation (85%); 51 (out of 62) a HM-LC, 51 (out of 59) a LM-LC, 51 (out of 57) a HM-HC, 51 (out of 63) a LM-HC situation. An older non-student sample was recruited to ensure participants had a wider range of experiences to draw from (see Table 1 for sample characteristics, Appendix B for additional details).

Participants were provided with a broad range of examples of situations to facilitate retrieval of a relevant experience and reduce selection biases, such as lying or concealing information, behaving unfairly or being selfish, adopting unethical organisational practices in the LM conditions (see Appendix A). Participants were also told most people had experienced at least one such situation in their lives and to think back to different periods in their life when this may have happened to encourage deeper self-reflection, and in the LM conditions, that this may not be indicative of the kind of person they are in general to reduce defensive reactions, particularly from high SR individuals who do not view themselves as immoral. Participants were instructed to take three minutes to think of and relive the scenario/experience, including associated emotions, and to describe it.

Manipulation checks. The adherence to morals manipulation check was the same as in Study 2 (with the addition of "at that time" at the end of the statement) (r_{SB} =.94). For the

competence manipulation check, participants indicated how high they felt their performance was at the time from 1 (very low) to 10 (very high) and how competent they felt at the time from 1 (very incompetent) to 10 (very competent) (r_{SB} =.90).

Outcome measures. The measures were the same as in Study 2, except the SR measure included an additional item: "I have little respect for myself", and the SE measure included an additional three items adapted from the general self-concept subscale of the Self Description Questionnaire III (Marsh, 1984): "I have pretty positive feelings about myself", "I have pretty negative feelings about myself" and "I view myself positively", rated on the same 7-pt Likert scale as the other items.

Parallel analysis and EFA fit indices supported the nine items representing two factors as opposed to one; the SR and SE items loaded well on their respective factors (loadings of .50 to .97) with a factor correlation of .79, indicating that the SR and SE measures represent two related but distinct constructs (see Table 6 and Appendix F for full details). Moreover, an EFA within a CFA framework (E/CFA)[11], which permits to statistically compare model fit, using Maximum Likelihood Robust (MLM) estimator, showed an acceptable to good fit for the two-factor model distinguishing between SR and SE items (see Appendix F for the factor loadings), which was significantly better than the one-factor model, χ^2 difference = 82.21, p <.001. These findings support the SR and SE items used in Studies 1a-b and 2 tapping two distinct constructs.

Nevertheless, an even better fit for a three-factor model suggested the measures could be improved further, by removing the SR item "I wish I could have more respect for myself" and the SE item "I feel good about myself", which appeared to be less consistent or pure markers[12]. The first item loaded most strongly on a third factor and the second item cross-loaded on the SR factor (factor loading of .69 on the SE factor and .43 on the SR factor) (see

Table 2 in Appendix F). The three-item SR factor (α=.90) correlated at .78 with the four-item SE factor (α=.95).

Baseline measures. The same measures were used as in Study 1b with similar internal reliabilities, except state SR was measured with the same three items used for the revised SR outcome measure (α=.92) (data was also collected for the item "I wish I could have more respect for myself" at baseline).

Analytical approach. A 2 X 2 MANOVA was used since experienced SR and SE outcome measures were strongly correlated (*rho* = .77). Despite the high correlation, 41 per cent ($1 - .77^2$) of the variance in state SR and SE remains available to be uniquely explained for each.

Results and Discussion

Preliminary analyses. The conditions did not differ in terms of background or baseline characteristics. Baseline state SR and SE were added as covariates in MANOVA and experienced SR and SE ANCOVA analyses respectively because they were significantly correlated with these outcomes (see Appendix D Table 4a).

Manipulation checks. Table 10 presents descriptive statistics for manipulation checks and outcome measures.

Moral ratings. 2 X 2 ANOVA confirmed participants rated themselves more morally principled in the HM versus LM condition, $F(1,199)=188.71$, $p<.001$ ($\eta_p^2=.49$).

Higher moral ratings were also found in the HC versus LC condition, $F(1,199)=43.82$, $p<.001$ ($\eta_p^2=.18$), as in Study 1b, with no significant interaction. We therefore also present results for the effect of competence after controlling for moral ratings in anticipated SR and SE ANCOVA analyses.

Competence ratings. 2 X 2 ANCOVA confirmed participants rated themselves significantly more competent in the HC versus LC condition, $F(1,198)=193.44$, $p<.001$ ($\eta_p^2=.49$).

Higher competence ratings were also found in the HM versus LM condition, $F(1,195)=13.18$, $p<.001$ ($\eta_p^2=.06$). Results are therefore also presented for the effect of adherence to morals after controlling for competence ratings in anticipated SR and SE ANCOVA analyses.

Main results. 2 X 2 MANCOVA showed a significant multivariate main effect of adherence to morals, $F(1,187)= 26.34$, $p<.001$; Wilk's Lamba = .78, $\eta_p^2=.22$ and competence, $F(1,187)= 24.94$, $p<.001$; Wilk's Lamba = .79, $\eta_p^2=.21$, and no interaction.

Adherence to morals. Univariate tests showed a significant effect of adherence to morals on experienced SR, $F(1,188)=51.45$, $p<.001$ ($\eta_p^2= .22$), 95% CI =[.963, 1.693], and SE, $F(1,188)= 33.74$, $p<.001$ ($\eta_p^2=.15$), 95% CI =[.725, 1.472], in the expected direction. The effect on SR remained after adjusting for experienced SE, $F(1,194)=16.39$, $p<.001$ ($\eta_p^2= .08$), $CI_{95\%}$ = [.302, .877], and competence ratings also, $F(1,191)=16.29$, $p<.001$ ($\eta_p^2= .08$), $CI_{95\%}$ = [.304, .886]. Hypothesis 1 that adherence to moral principles will influence SR was therefore supported. In contrast, the effect on SE was no longer significant after adjusting for experienced SR, $F(1,189)= 3.72$, $p=.055$ ($\eta p^2=.02$), $CI_{95\%}$ = [-.007, .598], and became even weaker after also adjusting for competence ratings, $F(1,186)= 2.24$, p=.136 ($\eta p2=.01$), $CI_{95\%}$ = [-.07, .508].

A mediation analysis, adjusting for baseline state SR and SE and the competence manipulation supported experienced SR mediating the effect of adherence to morals on experienced SE (indirect effect = .93, $CI_{95\%}$ = .66, 1.24 > 0), and hypothesis 2 (see Figure 2 for a schematic representation and Table 11 for all regression coefficients).

Competence. Univariate tests showed a significant effect of competence on experienced SE, $F(1,188)= 48.29$, $p<.001$ ($\eta_p^2=.20$), $CI_{95\%} = [.933, 1.673]$, in the expected direction, supporting Hypothesis 4 that competence will influence self-esteem. This effect remained after adjusting for moral ratings, $F(1,189) = 19.27$, $p <.001$ ($\eta p^2=.09$), $CI_{95\%} = [.485, 1.275]$, or experienced SR, $F(1,189) = 36.42$, $p <.001$ ($\eta p^2=.16$), $CI_{95\%} = [.582, 1.147]$, alongside experienced SR, $F(1, 186) = 150.42$, $p<.001$ ($\eta_p^2=.44$). This pattern of results indicates that both SR and competence uniquely influence SE.

A significant effect on experienced SR was also found, $F(1,188)=14.18$, $p<.001(\eta_p^2=.07)$, $CI_{95\%} = [.329, 1.053]$, with higher SR in the HC versus LC condition. However, the effect was no longer significant after controlling for moral ratings, $F(1, 194)= 2.27$, $p=.134$ ($\eta_p^2=.01$), $CI_{95\%} = [-.09, .648]$ or experienced SE, $F(1, 194)=1.15$, $p=.286$ ($\eta_p^2=.01$), $CI_{95\%} = [-.133, .450]$.

In sum, Study 3 replicated the findings of Study 2 using the full 2X2 design and in the absence of baseline differences between conditions.

Post-hoc analyses: Further exploring the relationship between self-respect and self-esteem through factor analysis. Consistent with the main study results, factor analyses of baseline state and trait SR and SE data supported SR to be distinct from global SE and other specific self-evaluations or facets.

EFA of SSES and state SR items supported a five-factor solution, which showed SR to be a separate factor from social approval, appearance and performance SE and a fifth factor corresponding to self-deprecation. Correlations were .35, .39, .59 and .50 between SR and each factor respectively, showing SR to be related to, yet distinct from, the other SE facets investigated. After adding four baseline state global SE items to the EFA (the same as those making up the outcome measure that were also taken at baseline), an additional positive global SE factor emerged on which the global SE items loaded, the SR factor became more

clearly defined, and the SR-performance SE correlation decreased to .54, with the correlation with global SE being .54 (see Table 6 for EFA fit indices and Appendix F for fuller details and results of all analyses in this section).

In contrast, an EFA of the 10 RSE items, the seven descriptive trait SRS items relating to being moral, principled and honourable and two global appraisal trait SR items (I have a lot of respect for myself" and "I feel I have a high degree of self-respect") in combined samples from Studies 2 and 3 (N=518), supported a four-factor solution that showed the descriptive SRS and global appraisal SR items to load on the same factor, which was distinct from global SE, itself divided into overall self-satisfaction and two other factors interpreted by Tafarodi and Swann (1995) as reflecting the "self-competence" (i.e. feeling confident, capable and effective) and "self-liking" (i.e. social value ascribed) dimensions of global SE. The SR factor correlated at .67, .55 and .55 with each SE factor respectively. This analysis further supports SR's close link to attributes of being moral and principled.

An exploratory bifactor analysis, followed by a confirmatory bifactor analysis (see Reise, 2012) also supported SR being a subdomain of global SE distinct from other facets. In line with past research showing a bifactor model to provide the best factor representation for the SSES (see McCain, Jonason, Foster, & Campbell, 2015), an exploratory bifactor model showed the state SR items to behave as a fourth grouping factor, alongside social approval, appearance SE and performance SE grouping factors, that explained additional common variance to that explained by the general (g) factor (here global SE or evaluation towards the self, underpinning all items) like the other three SE facets. A reduced bifactor CFA model[13] presented an acceptable fit, with all SR items loading significantly on the SR grouping factor, suggesting notable amounts of unique variance for the SR items (Gomez et al., 2015), and was a significantly better fit than a bifactor model where the SR items loaded on the general factor only, $\chi 2$ difference = 69.87, $p < .001$, or bifactor models in which the SR items were

specified to load on the general and performance SE, appearance SE or social approval grouping factors instead. SR thus shares communalities with the general factor global SE whilst also exhibiting specific elements that are separate and unique from it. This evidence, combined with studies 1-3 showing SR to have distinctive association patterns from SE, further supports SR as a distinct construct in its own right (Gomez et al., 2015).

General discussion

While the term "self-respect" is commonly used in everyday language, the concept has been the object of very little psychological research. Yet, it is recognised to be an important aspect of self-esteem (e.g. Kernis, 2003; Rosenberg, 1965) and believed to be critical to living a satisfying and flourishing life (Dillon, 2010). This research sought to provide an empirically supported understanding of the bases of self-respect, and how it differs from self-esteem, to develop our understanding of this important concept. Findings support the conceptualisation of self-respect as a component of self-esteem linked to morally principled conduct (Kumashiro et al., 2002; Kristjansson, 2007), rather than a feature of global self-esteem influenced by a range of diverse self-domains (Kernis, 2003).

Four experimental studies provide evidence that adherence to morals is a key feature of self-respect, with a significant effect of the adherence to morals manipulation on participants' anticipated state self-respect when imagining themselves in scenarios and felt state self-respect in a past situation they relived. This is the first set of studies to provide direct evidence for the conceptualisation of self-respect as linked to morally principled conduct, as put forth by philosophers and other authors (e.g. Kumashiro et al., 2002; Kristjansson, 2007; Roland & Foxx, 2003), thus establishing self-respect as likely to play an important role in the understanding of moral behaviour. Study 3 unexpectedly provided additional support for this argument by showing that participants who recalled a situation in which they compromised on their morals had lower baseline self-respect than those who

recalled a situation in which they did not, when performing badly academically. Future research should test this hypothesis more formally in view of research demonstrating the predictive value of trait self-esteem when domain-specific self-esteem relevant to the outcome is assessed (Baumeister et al., 2003) and showing momentary feelings of moral self-worth to influence engagement in moral behaviours (Sachdeva, Iliev, & Medin, 2009). It should be noted that self-respect is conceptualised as involving a subjective judgment of honourable and moral character and behaviour such that it may relate to generally agreed notions of moral behaviour only when individuals embrace such notions.

An important finding in all studies was that self-respect mediated the effect of adherence to morals on self-esteem, furthering our understanding of the relationship between morally principled conduct and self-esteem, which has not benefitted from much research (Jennings, Mitchell, & Hannah, 2015). Subsidiary analyses in Study 1b and post-hoc analyses in Study 3 further supported moral integrity as being more defining of self-respect than self-esteem. In addition to moral behaviour being associated with self-esteem because it allows individuals who value being moral to meet their "ought" or "ideal" selves (Jennings et al., 2015), the subsidiary analysis in Study 1b indicated self-evaluation as worthy of respect can also explain the link between moral behaviour and self-esteem, even when one is not strongly invested in being moral per se. Self-respect involves an appraisal of oneself as worthy of high regard connected to feelings of dignity, honour and being principled and is linked to, yet broader than moral self-approval (see Kumashiro et al., 2002; Luchies et al., 2010). For instance, Luchies et al. (2010) showed that self-respect diminished when forgiving a transgressor who had not made amends. Future research should investigate further the relationship between the moral self and self-respect, including factors facilitating an attitude of respect for oneself when engaging in morally principled behaviour.

The influence of competence and interpersonal appraisals (IA) on self-respect and self-esteem was also investigated. Studies 1b and 3 found academic or broader task-related competence to influence self-respect, however only indirectly through feelings of being morally principled or anticipated/felt self-esteem. Study 2 showed no effect of academic performance per se on self-respect when adherence to morals was held constant. These findings suggest that self-respect, does not appear to be based on intellectual qualities and talents/skills, such that its basis is narrower than that for interpersonal respect (Frei & Shaver, 2002; Hamilton & Fallot, 1974; Prestwich, & Lalljee, 2009). Despite this, the findings suggest that the relationship between competence, self-respect and self-esteem is complicated since competence could possibly modify perceptions of moral integrity, and vice-versa.

Study 1 found a main effect of IA on self-respect, but the effect became small after adjusting for feelings of being morally principled and was no longer significant after adjusting for global self-esteem, whilst the effect of IA on self-esteem remained significant after adjusting for self-respect (as was the case for competence). Therefore self-respect does not appear to be directly influenced by feelings of acceptance or rejection, although social (dis)approval by peers might function as a looking glass self (Cooley, 1902), intensifying self-perceptions of being (im)moral and (un)principled, and indirectly influencing self-respect. The closer influence of IA on self-esteem than self-respect is consistent with social popularity being more strongly linked to liking than respect (Hamilton & Fallot, 1974).

Moreover, the studies indicated that self-respect influenced self-esteem independently of IA (Study 1a) or competence (Studies 1b, 2 and 3). Baseline post-hoc analyses in Study 3 also demonstrated state self-respect to be a factor sufficiently distinct from performance, social and appearance self-esteem as well as global self-esteem, suggesting that self-respect should be measured alongside these self-esteem domains to improve the prediction of self-esteem. The high bivariate correlations between state self-respect and global self-esteem may

be related to principled behaviour's link to competence, enhanced self-efficacy and greater confidence in being accepted by others associated with high self-respect. Also, the global appraisal nature of the self-respect items make them liable to be strongly influenced by positive affectivity linked to self-esteem in the same manner as performance self-esteem also correlates highly with trait self-esteem as it contains global evaluative items such as "I feel like I'm not doing well". On the whole, the findings support self-respect as a sense of worth derived from being morally principled, as opposed to competent or popular. This suggests that self-respect may be a more internal and controllable source of self-esteem and therefore more amenable to intervention as a trait (Crocker et al., 2003).

The research suffered from some limitations. The study used a single item to measure anticipated self-esteem in Studies 1a and 1b, yet, it has been well validated, performing similarly to the Rosenberg self-esteem scale (Robins et al., 2001). Moreover, single items have been shown to demonstrate reasonable levels of reliability and validity when not ambiguous and assessing reasonably homogeneous unidimensional constructs as was the case here since perceptions of global self-esteem and self-respect were assessed (Postmes, Haslam, & Jans, 2013; Robins et al., 2001). Due to the lack of prior studies on which to base sample size power calculations, studies planned to recruit a minimum of 128 participants to detect a medium effect size (Cohen, 1992), but Study 2 fell a little short. However, power did not appear to be an issue since effect sizes were medium to large and detected, or were very small, indicating no or little meaningful effect to be detected.

An experimental design with set vignettes in Studies 1a and 1b afforded more control over the factors of interest, strengthening causal conclusions regarding their impact on self-respect and self-esteem, and was needed to separate the influence of interrelated sources of self-esteem. Moreover, it permitted investigation of immediate responses to undesirable behaviour, in a potentially less threatening way given the role play involved, possibly

facilitating their disclosure. However, responses in vignettes may differ to those in real life, although similarities have been found between hypothetical vignette and actual behaviour (Evans et al., 2015), and some may believe that the ends justify immoral behaviour. Therefore studies 2 and 3 were carried out to increase ecological validity by asking participants to select personally relevant situations they had experienced. This introduced some unpredicted but theoretically consistent differences between conditions in Study 2, notably in baseline self-respect, likely due to high self-respect individuals being better at resisting moral compromise when the need arises, such as when doing badly academically. Nonetheless, the main findings relating to adherence to morals and competence held after adjusting for these baseline differences in Study 2 and were replicated in Study 3 which was not subject to this potential bias, strengthening the conclusions.

Conclusions

The studies have helped advance our understanding of self-respect, a concept that has been neglected in the psychological literature and often used interchangeably with self-esteem. Consistent with theories that self-respect is an attitude of respect for oneself based on principled and honourable behaviour, the experimental studies provided direct evidence for self-respect being influenced by moral integrity, and showed self-respect to mediate the effect of morally principled behaviour on self-esteem. On the other hand, they did not support self-respect to be directly based on competence or social popularity. This work strengthens the view that self-respect is a specific self-evaluation that is more internal and as a trait likely to be more amenable to intervention, and highlights its potentially important implications for the study of moral behaviour. This work also suggests self-respect should be measured alongside other well-established self-esteem components to enhance prediction of self-esteem, although future research is needed to study the relationship between self-respect and other self-esteem

domains not investigated here. Strengthening self-respect has the potential to enhance individual well-being whilst benefitting society at large.

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Footnotes

[1]In all parallel analyses and EFAs (unless indicated otherwise), the Minres factoring method was used because it provides results similar to Maximum Likelihood (a more powerful estimator) without requiring multivariate normal distribution (Harman & Jones, 1966). All factor analyses were done in R 3.5.1; see appendices for packages used.

[2]In all studies, findings were similar when the full measure ($\alpha > .89$) or a reduced measure without the self-respect item was used ($\alpha > .88$).

[3]The Spearman-Brown coefficient has been shown to be a better measure of reliability for two-item measures (Eisinga, Grotenhuis, & Pelzer, 2012).

[4]There were violations of the homogeneity of variance assumption in Studies 1a and 3 and of the normality assumption in all studies but these were only modest and unlikely to be problematic, especially since the groups were very similar in size (see Glass, Peckham, & Sanders, 1972). Analysis of single Likert scale items using the F-test has also been shown to be robust when testing is on an a priori basis, items have at least 5 scale points and the underlying concept can be considered continuous (Glass et al., 1972).

[5]The majority were university students with only 12 pre-university students; these were similarly represented in the different conditions with no difference in baseline or outcome scores.

[6]More participants were recruited in this condition due to a lower likelihood of having had such an experience to make the groups more similar in size.

[7]Findings were similar when the single self-esteem item (Robins et al., 2001) was used on its own.

[8]PA was used in this analysis because other factoring methods presented identification problems.

[9]State SR was more strongly related to the outcome but findings were similar after adjusting for trait SR.

[10]Baseline state SR was not added as a covariate because trait and state SR were highly correlated (r = .77) but findings were similar after adjusting for state instead of trait SR. None of the analyses suffered from multicollinearity.

[11]E/CFA provides the benefits of CFA estimation (e.g. more extensive fit information than EFA, use of Maximum Likelihood Robust estimation) without the restriction of fixing all cross-loadings to 0, which can result in less accurate parameters when cross-loadings are present (see Asparouhov, Muthén, & Morin, 2015; Brown, 2014).

[12]The revised three-item SR measure was strongly correlated with the full four-item SR measure (r=.97) and Studies 1a-b and 2 three-item SR measure (r=.97). The revised four-item SE measure was also strongly correlated with the five-item SE measure (r=.99) and Study 2 two-item SE measure (r=.94). Findings were also similar in Studies 1a-b and 2 when the item "I wish I had more respect for myself" was removed from the SR measure.

[13]Three items were removed because of problematic cross-loadings on grouping factors and another three (non-SR items) for higher loadings on non-intended than intended factors (one non-SR item was also specified to load on the general factor only because of weak loadings on all grouping factors). Little scale content was likely to have been lost since correlations between the original and reduced total and subscale SSES scores remained high (all >.92). The MLM estimator was used.

Table 1: *Sample characteristics*

	Study 1a	**Study 1b**	**Study 2**	**Study 3**
N	159	148	178	204
M age (*SD*)	22.03 (7.09)	24.67 (8.64)	23.20 (6.18)	35.41 (10.88)
Gender (%)				
Male	18	64	66	74
Female	140	83	107	128
Unreported	1	1	3	2
Ethnicity				
White		103	149	175
White-British	146			
White-other	2			
Asian	3	18	17	15
Black	3	14	2	6
Other	4	11	9	6
Unreported	1	2	1	2

Table 2

Effects of Adherence to Morals and Interpersonal Appraisal (IA) on Self-Respect and Self-Esteem Ratings (and Moral and IA Ratings)

		Moral ratings			IA ratings			Self-Respect			Self-Esteem		
Morals	Interpersonal Appraisal	*M*	*SD*	*N*	*M*	*SD*	*N*	*M*	*SD*	*N*	*M*	*SD*	*N*
High	Positive	8.20	1.86	41	8.50	2.28	42	5.63	1.15	41	5.02	1.60	42
	Negative	5.38	2.27	37	2.69	2.38	36	4.37	1.27	36	3.33	1.59	36
	Total	6.86	2.49	78	5.82	3.72	78	5.04	1.36	77	4.24	1.80	78
Low	Positive	4.43	2.32	37	8.70	1.65	37	3.66	1.36	36	4.03	1.61	37
	Negative	2.66	2.11	38	2.58	2.10	38	2.77	1.69	38	2.82	1.71	38
	Total	3.53	2.37	75	5.60	3.61	75	3.20	1.59	74	3.41	1.76	75
Total	Positive	6.41	2.81	78	8.59	2.00	79	4.71	1.59	77	4.56	1.67	79
	Negative	4.00	2.57	75	2.64	2.22	74	3.55	1.69	74	3.07	1.66	74
	Total	5.23	2.94	153	5.71	3.65	153	4.14	1.74	151	3.84	1.82	153

Table 3

Hierarchical Regression Analysis: test of mediation

	Anticipated Self-Respect		Anticipated Self-Esteem			
			Step 1		Step 2	
	B	*t*	*B*	*t*	*B*	*t*
Adherence to morals	1.67	7.29***	.76	3.05**	-.36	-1.53
Anticipated self-respect					.66	8.84***
Interpersonal Appraisals	1.15	4.93***	1.52	6.05***	.76	3.50***
Baseline state self-esteem	.02	1.91	.04	3.80***	.03	3.27**
Baseline state self-respect	.30	1.73	.27	1.45	.07	.48

Notes. *p<.05, **p<.01, ***p<.001. Adding anticipated self-respect increased the amount of variance explained for self-esteem from R^2 = .45 to R^2 =.64.

Table 4

Effects of Adherence to Morals and Academic Competence on Self-Respect and Self-Esteem Ratings (and Moral and Competence Ratings)

		Moral ratings			Comp ratings			Self-Respect			Self-Esteem		
Morals	Competence	*M*	*SD*	*N*	*M*	*SD*	*N*	*M*	*SD*	*N*	*M*	*SD*	*N*
High	High	8.76	1.31	37	8.22	1.59	37	5.46	1.00	36	5.69	1.41	36
	Low	6.99	2.14	37	2.71	1.64	37	4.24	1.44	37	3.75	1.59	36
	Total	7.87	1.97	74	5.46	3.20	74	4.85	1.38	73	4.72	1.79	72
Low	High	3.27	2.10	37	5.18	2.35	37	3.00	1.16	36	3.19	1.47	37
	Low	2.59	1.55	37	2.08	1.25	37	2.41	1.16	37	2.19	1.31	37
	Total	2.93	1.86	74	3.63	2.44	74	2.70	1.19	73	2.69	1.47	74
Total	High	6.01	3.26	74	6.70	2.51	74	4.23	1.64	72	4.42	1.91	73
	Low	4.79	2.88	74	2.40	1.48	74	3.32	1.59	74	2.96	1.65	73
	Total	5.40	3.13	148	4.55	2.98	148	3.77	1.67	146	3.69	1.92	146

Table 5

Hierarchical Regression Analysis: test of mediation

	Anticipated Self-Respect		Anticipated Self-Esteem			
			Step 1		Step 2	
	B	*t*	*B*	*t*	*B*	*t*
Adherence to morals	2.18	11.33***	2.10	8.97***	.51	1.95
Anticipated self-respect					.73	8.90***
Academic competence	.94	4.91***	1.49	6.36***	.80	3.93***
Baseline state self-respect	.26	3.74***	.31	3.70***	.12	1.73

Notes. *p<.05, **p<.01, ***p<.001. Adding anticipated self-respect increased the amount of variance explained for self-esteem from R^2 = .48 to R^2 =.67. The pattern of results was similar after controlling for competence ratings with an indirect effect of 1.00 (.61, 1.42).

Table 6:

Fit indices for factor analysis models

Model	χ^2 (df), *p**	CFI	TLI	RMSEA (90% CI)	SRMR	BIC
Study 2: outcome state measures						
2-factor EFA	χ^2 (1)=4.99, .026	NA	.95	NA	NA	-0.38
1-factor EFA	χ^2 (5)=116.69	NA	.72	NA	NA	89.86
Study 3: outcome state measures						
2-factor EFA	χ^2 (19)=54.18	NA	.97	.089 (.061, .116)	NA	-50.03
1-factor EFA	χ^2 (27)=234.32	NA	.88	.181 (.158, .2)	NA	86.23
2-factor E/CFA	χ^2 (19)=39.29, .004	.99	.98	.071 (.039, .102)	.02	3950.33
1-factor E/CFA	χ^2 (27)=146.31	.93	.91	.157 (.133, .183)	.05	4056.42
Study 3: baseline state measures						
5-factor EFA	χ^2 (166)=322.75	NA	.93	.066 (.052, .073)	NA	-587.73
6-factor EFA with global SE items	χ^2 (225)=371.55	NA	.95	.057 (.043, .061)	NA	-862.53
Exploratory bifactor	χ^2 (166)=322.75	NA	.93	.066 (.052, .073)	NA	-587.73
Bifactor CFA	χ^2 (118)=248.13	.93	.91	.078 (.065, .092)	.06	9753.03
Bifactor CFA (SR items on g factor only)	χ^2 (121)=340.62	.89	.86	.101 (.088, .114)	.07	9860.30
Studies 2 and 3: baseline trait measures						
4-factor EFA	χ^2 (87)=352.82	NA	.91	.078 (.069, .085)	NA	-190.93

Notes. TLI and CFI values ≥ .90 and RMSEA values < .08 indicate acceptable model fit whilst TLI and CFI values ≥ .95 and RMSEA values ≤ .06 indicate good model fit; SRMR values close to 0 indicate perfect fit (Hu & Bentler, 1999; Browne & Cudeck, 1992). A lower BIC and χ^2/df ratio indicate better model fit. **p* is <.001 unless indicated otherwise. NA = Non-applicable because not provided by the EFA or not considered robust because of the very low degrees of freedom (see Kenny et al., 2015).

Table 7

Effects of Adherence to Morals on Self-Respect and Self-Esteem Ratings (and Moral and Competence Ratings)

	Moral ratings			Comp ratings			Self-Respect			Self-Esteem		
Morals	*M*	*SD*	*N*	*M*	*SD*	*N*	*M*	*SD*	*N*	*M*	*SD*	*N*
High	7.46	1.68	67	5.47	2.58	68	4.77	1.36	68	4.29	1.59	68
Low	5.08	2.13	51	4.68	2.29	51	3.51	1.30	51	3.10	1.57	50
Total	6.43	2.22	118	5.13	2.48	119	4.23	1.47	119	3.79	1.68	118

Table 8

Hierarchical Regression Analysis: test of mediation

	Experienced self-Respect		Experienced self-Esteem			
			Step 1		Step 2	
	B	*t*	*B*	*t*	*B*	*t*
Adherence to morals	1.03	4.77***	.85	3.09**	.07	.30
Experienced self-respect					.75	7.58***
Baseline state self-respect	1.04	7.12***	.91	4.89***	.13	.70
Performance self-esteem	-.02	-.77	.02	.70	.03	1.42

Notes. *p <.05, **p<.01, ***p <.001. Adding self-respect increased the amount of variance explained for self-esteem from R^2 = .35 to R^2 =.58.

Table 9

Effects of Academic Competence on Self-Respect and Self-Esteem Ratings (and Moral and Competence Ratings)

	Moral ratings			Comp ratings			Self-Respect			Self-Esteem		
Comp	*M*	*SD*	*N*	*M*	*SD*	*N*	*M*	*SD*	*N*	*M*	*SD*	*N*
High	7.53	1.64	57	7.06	2.10	58	4.78	1.30	58	4.76	1.53	58
Low	7.46	1.68	67	5.47	2.58	68	4.77	1.36	68	4.29	1.59	68
Total	7.49	1.66	124	6.20	2.49	126	4.78	1.33	126	4.51	1.57	126

Table 10

Effects of Adherence to Morals and Academic Competence on Self-Respect and Self-Esteem Ratings (and Moral and Competence Ratings)

		Moral ratings			Comp ratings			Self-Respect			Self-Esteem		
Morals	Competence	*M*	*SD*	*N*	*M*	*SD*	*N*	*M*	*SD*	*N*	*M*	*SD*	*N*
High	High	8.57	1.21	50	7.78	1.33	51	5.39	1.22	51	5.35	1.20	51
	Low	7.03	2.09	51	4.28	2.21	50	4.75	1.51	51	3.82	1.60	50
	Total	7.79	1.87	101	6.05	2.53	101	5.07	1.40	102	4.59	1.60	101
Low	High	5.15	2.08	51	6.94	1.62	50	4.19	1.43	50	3.94	1.26	51
	Low	3.18	1.99	51	3.25	2.06	51	3.36	1.57	51	2.80	1.49	51
	Total	4.17	2.26	102	5.07	2.62	101	3.77	1.55	101	3.37	1.49	102
Total	High	6.84	2.42	101	7.37	1.53	101	4.79	1.45	101	4.65	1.42	102
	Low	5.11	2.80	102	3.76	2.19	101	4.06	1.69	102	3.30	1.62	101
	Total	5.97	2.75	203	5.56	2.61	202	4.42	1.61	203	3.98	1.66	203

Table 11

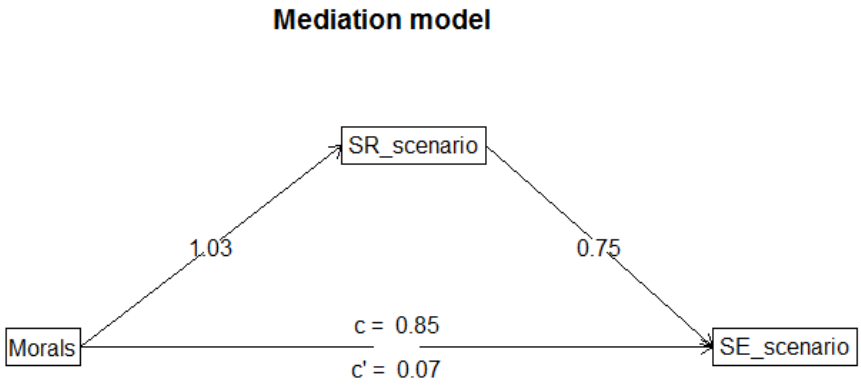
Hierarchical Regression Analysis: test of mediation

	Experienced Self-Respect		Experienced Self-Esteem			
			Step 1		Step 2	
	B	*t*	*B*	*t*	*B*	*t*
Adherence to morals	1.33	7.20***	1.09	5.80***	.17	1.06
Anticipated self-respect					.70	12.81***
Competence	.69	3.78***	1.30	6.95***	.82	5.76***
Baseline state self-esteem	.01	1.45	.04	3.64***	.03	3.60***
Baseline state self-respect	.11	3.86***	.01	.46	-.07	-2.86**

Notes. *p<.05, **p<.01, ***p<.001. Adding anticipated self-respect increased the amount of variance explained for self-esteem from R^2 = .40 to R^2 =.68. The pattern of results was similar after controlling for competence ratings with an indirect effect of .69 (.45, .98). Social approval ratings had little effect on the pattern of results (see Appendix A).

Figure 1

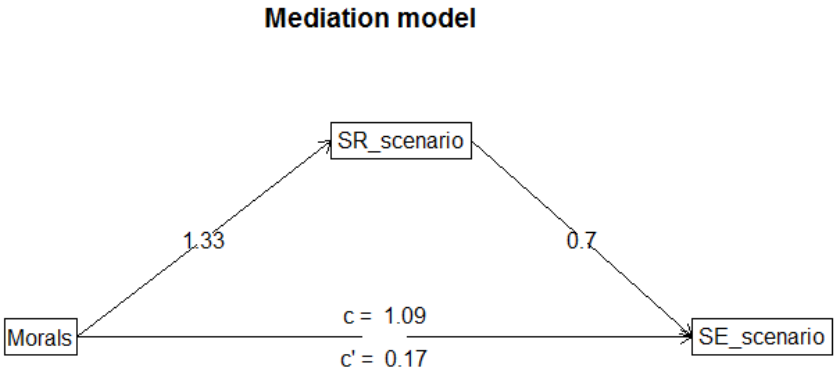
Mediation model for Study 2



Note. c = total effect, c’ = direct effect

Figure 2

Mediation model for Study 3



Note. c = total effect, c’ = direct effect